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ABSTRACT

A study investigated the adjustments made in classroom behavior and teaching techniques by western-trained English-as-a-Second-Language (ESL) teachers in Japanese universities. Subjects were 16 instructors at three institutions, all with native or native-like English fluency and all trained in Canadian or United States graduate programs for ESL teachers. Data were gathered through interviews, classroom observation, and audio-recording of observed classes. Results indicate that the teachers made a variety of adaptations to teaching in Japan, with the results that their classrooms were not highly communicative. Most classes were teacher-centered, with Japanese used frequently in group work, and little interaction contributing to English language development. While the texts used were communicative in approach, most classes emphasized meaning over form, despite some teacher feedback focused on form. All classrooms demonstrated adaptations to the Japanese context, with many of the changes suggesting altered teacher expectations. Teachers had devised various means to motivate students, including point systems or other techniques for rewarding participation. No relationship was found between length of teaching experience in Japan and classroom instructional techniques. Implications are discussed. Contains 22 references. (MSE)

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COMMUNICATIVE ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING IN JAPANESE UNIVERSITIES: TEACHER ADAPTATIONS

Marjorie Terdal, Linda Dunn and Robert Gaynor

INTRODUCTION

Each April, thousands of western-trained teachers of English greet their new classes in Japan and begin the academic year. Since the current trend in foreign language education in Japan is toward western communicative methods (Ike, 1995, pp. 8-9; Koike & Tanaka, 1995, pp. 18-19), many of these teachers are hired because they have been trained at western universities and they will try to use their training to create classroom situations in which the focus is on communication. However, the majority of them will find that cultural and educational barriers make communicative language teaching difficult in Japan. How teachers respond to these barriers is a compelling question for prospective EFL teachers and teacher-educators. This study began with the question "What classroom adaptations do western-trained EFL teachers make in response to the teaching environment in Japan?"

For this study, sixteen university English teachers, trained in communicative language teaching methods, were observed teaching. The activities in the classrooms were coded using the Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) observation scheme designed by Allen, Frohlich, and Spada (1984). The intent was to determine the extent to which teachers adjust their teaching style to better meet the needs and expectations of their Japanese students and how these adaptations influence the communicative orientation of their classes.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Since the early 1980s communicative language teaching (CLT) has been the predominant approach in North America and western Europe, even though there are different interpretations of how CLT is implemented in classrooms (Spada & Frohlich, 1995). ESL/EFL teachers are usually well grounded in the theory of CLT and its methodology. In a popular textbook for ESL/EFL teacher trainees, Brown (1994) asserts that

> Communicative goals are best achieved by giving due attention to language use and not just usage, to fluency and not just accuracy, to authentic language and contexts, and to students' eventual need to apply classroom learning to heretofore unrehearsed contexts in the real world. (p. 29)

Teachers trained in CLT discover in Japan a culture that places value on behaviors that work against many accepted communicative techniques. In a successful communicative classroom, students are active, initiate interactions, and ask the teacher questions when they want to know more or don't

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understand. Japanese students, on the other hand, are generally quiet, passive, and obedient. They learn by watching and listening to their teachers, not by questioning (Nozaki, 1993). Perhaps due to their Confucian heritage (Stapleton, 1995), Japanese students do not like to stand out from their peers and are reluctant to volunteer for fear of making a mistake or being seen to know more than their classmates (Anderson, 1993).

Japanese and western communication styles are different in several respects and that can cause problems in a communicative classroom. For example, western tradition places responsibility for communication on the speaker and it is the listeners' job to indicate whether they understood the message. However, in Japan and other Asian cultures, listeners are expected to work out the meaning of the message for themselves and they generally will not admit to not having understood. Repetition or rephrasing by the listener are considered discourteous (Bowers, 1988). Also, conversational turn-taking in Japan is very different from that in western cultures. Sakamoto and Naotsuka (1982) express the difference by comparing western conversation to a game of volleyball, in which the topic or ball is hit back by "whoever is nearest and quickest," (p. 82) while Japanese conversation is more like bowling, with each person taking his or her turn while the others wait patiently. Sakamoto and Naotsuka maintain that a western teacher who tries to get a western -style discussion going in a Japanese class is doomed to fail because the students are "playing the wrong game" (p. 84; see also Sato, 1990). Other cultural patterns that can cause problems for western teachers were reported by Barnlund (1975), who found that Japanese prefer formal and regulated interactions, are reserved and cautious in expressing themselves, and prefer to be evasive and silent rather than open and frank.

Japanese students are products not only of their culture, but also of the educational system that trains them. While pre-schools and elementary schools in Japan tend to tolerate a wide range of child behavior, with teachers maintaining a relatively low profile (Lewis, 1991), by the time students reach junior high school the pressure to master large amounts of material in preparation for high school entrance exams has begun. Once students enter high school they begin to prepare for college entrance examinations. Teaching methods and curricula are designed to help students pass these important tests and "have evolved into cram systems in one way or another" (Shimahara, 1991, p. 127). Memorization becomes perhaps the most important learning tool, not only because of its place in the Confucian tradition (Stapleton, 1995) but because the large number of *kanji* (Chinese characters) to be learned requires it.

Students must learn to read and write nineteen hundred characters by the end of junior high school (White, 1987).

The Japanese education system has become renowned for the "examination hell" it imposes on college-bound students. Not only does it affect what and how students learn, but why they learn. According to Shimahara, "Adolescents undergo a great deal of personal sacrifice and have little intrinsic motivation for learning because of the extrinsic pressures imposed upon them" (1991, p.127). Once a student has succeeded in entering a university, the extrinsic motivation that has controlled his/her behavior is gone and there is often nothing to replace it, since graduation is almost assured. This situation has been called the "escalator system," since if both feet are placed firmly on the first step, the student will automatically progress to graduation (Nozaki, 1991). Passing courses is a formality and students, faculty, and society regard the college years as a time to relax after "examination hell."

Faced with the cultural and educational background of their students, how do western teachers respond? This has been a major topic of discussion in Japan Association for Language Teaching publications recently. Cogan (1995) maintains that in the inherent culture clash of the Japanese oral English class, "the onus should be on the teacher to ensure that this cultural encounter is successful . . ." (p. 37), that the teacher should be aware of the cultural expectation of the students, and that the goal of communicative competence may need to be modified accordingly. (See also Kemp, 1995 and Sano, et al., 1984). Greene and Hunter (1993) found that the different expectations of teachers and students leads to an acculturation process and the resulting establishment of a "culture of oral language learning and teaching" (p. 9) requiring adaptations from teachers and learners. Dinsmore (1985), observing classes in Japan taught by American teachers, found a shortage of communicative activities. He also observed a lot of teacher talk and foreigner talk with an overemphasis on form over meaning and a large proportion of time spent in explaining activities.

The current study explores the difference between what communicatively trained English teachers expect to do in their classrooms and what they actually do when placed in the Japanese teaching context.

METHOD

SUBJECTS AND SETTING

Three methods of data collection were used: interviews, classroom observation, and audio-recording of the observed classes. Sixteen teachers at three universities in Japan volunteered to be part of

the study. All of the teachers had completed graduate programs in TESOL at universities in Canada or the United States. All were native speakers of English except for one, who had native-level proficiency. The time that the teachers had been at their current positions ranged from less than one year to more than six years. With the exception of two teachers, this time period was the same as the length of time they had been in Japan. Teaching experience before coming to Japan also ranged from less than one year to over six years.

Twelve teachers reported informal culturally specific preparation before coming to Japan, such as conversations with Japanese friends, casual reading, and films. Eight teachers reported formal preparation, including reading professional journals, formal cultural study, Japanese language study, and teaching Japanese students. Twelve teachers also reported informal preparation and eight teachers formal preparation after coming to Japan.

The majority of classes observed were required Freshman speaking courses; four were required Freshman integrative courses where speaking was the major focus. Eleven of the classes met twice a week for 90 minutes (usually with two different teachers), three met five times a week for 45 minutes, and one class met once a week for 90 minutes. Class sizes ranged from approximately 20 to 50 students.

INTERVIEWS

Interview questions (see appendix for a complete list) were open-ended and covered these general areas:

-teaching experience in Japan and elsewhere

-culture specific preparation for teaching in Japan before and after relocation

-awareness of Japanese cultural traits perceived to influence student behavior in speaking classes

-awareness of features of education in Japan also perceived to have an effect on student behavior

-modifications to teaching practices to accommodate cultural traits or features of education in Japan

-factors that influenced the teacher to make specific modifications

-descriptions of typical speaking classes

In most cases, the interviews took place before the observations, with a few conducted shortly after. In one case, the teacher provided written responses to the interview questions. Typically, one

researcher conducted an interview while making written note of responses, as well as an audio-recording. The interviewers requested that teachers elaborate upon individual questions as much as possible, with the interviews taking from 60 to 90 minutes. Later, each interviewer summarized the key points of the interview, based on written notes and the audio recording. Finally, the key points were categorized (see Tables 1 and 2) and a total was made of teacher responses described by each category.

CLASSROOM OBSERVATIONS

Observational data were collected and coded using the Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) Observation scheme, developed by Allen, Frohlich and Spada (1984) and elaborated upon by Spada and Frohlich (1995). COLT was selected because it is grounded in the communicative approach to second language teaching. The COLT categories enable an observer to describe classes as more or less communicatively oriented. In more communicatively oriented classes, teachers spend "more time focusing on meaning and group work interaction," ask more "genuine questions," and provide more opportunities for students to use language creatively and to participate "in negotiation of topics and tasks" (Spada & Frohlich, 1995, p. 7). In less communicatively oriented classes, teachers tend to focus more on form and error correction, ask questions to which they already know the answer, and restrict the variety of language forms that learners produce.

The COLT scheme is divided into two parts. Part A describes classroom events in terms of activities and episodes and is coded as the events occur. Part B analyzes the verbal exchanges between teacher and students and is coded from a transcript. For Part A the basic unit of analysis is the activity or episode within an activity. The main features of Part A are the following:

-time spent on each activity or episode

-participant organization (whole class, group, individual)

-content of each episode (management, language, other topics)

-content control (who selects the topic or task that is the focus of instruction)

-student modality (listening, speaking, reading, writing, or any combination of skills)

-materials (minimal or extended, audio or visual, authentic or written specifically for non-native speakers)

For this study, two observers visited each class, audio taped the class, took extensive field notes, and did a partial coding on Part A while observing. Immediately after the observation, field notes and

coding were compared to resolve discrepancies. Data collected from Part A were then analyzed in terms of percentage of total class time spent on each of the features.

The basic unit of analysis for Part B is the student-teacher turn. The main criteria for Part B are the following:

-use of target language

-information gap (giving predictable or unpredictable information,

-making genuine or pseudo requests for information)

-sustained speech (length of utterances)

-reaction to form or to message

-incorporation of utterances (correction, repetition, paraphrase, comment, expansion, clarification request, elaboration request)

-discourse initiation by students

-form restriction imposed on students' utterances

For this study, all the audio tapes were transcribed and then checked for accuracy by another person. Two persons independently coded Part B, using a time sampling procedure suggested by Spada and Frohlich, coding one minute of every three minutes. During each one-minute coding period, the frequency of occurrence of each category of the communicative features was recorded. Data from Part B were analyzed in terms of proportion of the main feature. For example, pseudo and genuine requests were calculated as proportions of the larger category Requesting Information.

RESULTS

INTERVIEWS

Factors related to English language education in Japan included the perceived function of the university in Japan, class size, a tendency toward passive learning, teaching practices in junior and senior high schools, an emphasis on product and tests over process, and minimal practice of oral skills for communication. Table 1 shows the number of teachers who identified each of these factors as a problem affecting students in their classes.

INSERT TABLE 1 HERE

To deal with the problems identified above, all of the teachers stated that they have made adaptations to teaching in Japan. Tables 2 and 3 show the number of teachers who noted adaptations in the areas of materials, classroom management, techniques, and evaluation. (In these tables, "fewer" and "more" refer to comparisons with teaching situations outside Japan.)

INSERT TABLES 2 AND 3 HERE

COLT PART A

A global score was calculated for each classroom, providing an overall picture of the communicative orientation when the class was observed. Spada and Frohlich provide guidelines for calculating this global score, using features from Part A of COLT that are considered representative of the communicative approach--group work, focus on meaning, content control, use of extended text, and use of L2 native speaker adapted and unadapted materials. A value from 1-5 was assigned to each of these five features based on the percentage of class time spent on that feature. Figure 1 shows the global score for each of the 16 classes observed. Scores ranged from a low of 5, which would be considered a weak indicator of communicative orientation, to a high of 22. The mean score for the 16 classes was 11.87, just below the mid-point on the global scale.

INSERT FIGURE 1 HERE

In the class with the highest communicative score, the students carried out an information gap task in groups of two. Each student had earlier gathered information about a country, such as population, capital, type of government, geographic features, and economy. Then in pairs they shared this information with a partner, who asked questions in English and took notes. After fifteen minutes, students found new partners and shared information about a different country. In the classes with the lowest global scores, the teachers closely followed the textbook, assigned individual seat work on formal exercises in the text, and used group work less than 15% of the class time.

Twelve of the 16 classes received a score of 2 or less on the 5-point scale on use of group work, a key feature of communicative language teaching. Only two classes spent more than 50% of class time on group work. On the other hand, all but two of the classes received a score of either 4 or 5 on focus on meaning, which is another key feature of the communicative approach. In only four of the classes was more than one-third of class time devoted exclusively to form, that is, grammar, vocabulary, or pronunciation. Figure 2 shows the percentage of time devoted to group work in each classroom and the percentage of time devoted to meaning.

INSERT FIGURE 2 HERE

Choice of topic or task was generally controlled by the teacher or text. With the exception of three classes in which students were giving speeches, writing letters, or exchanging information that they had gathered from outside sources, classes tended to follow a textbook, completing various exercises from the text, repeating chorally after the teacher, and reciting dialogues.

The use of extended materials ranged from zero percent in one class where all exercises were at the sentence level to 73% in the highly communicative class. Most classes also scored low on use of authentic materials originally intended for native speakers. One teacher, however, used segments from a popular American movie, and another had developed her own video describing American Thanksgiving customs.

COLT PART B

Audio tapes from 15 of the 16 observed classes were transcribed and coded according to Part B of COLT. The teacher of one class requested that her tape not be used for analysis. A time sampling procedure was used, with one minute of every three minutes coded. Because of large class size, however, the tape recorder could not pick up voices during small group activities and those segments could not be coded. It was determined that these one-minute segments were representative of the teacher-student interaction of the entire class period, but that they did not capture what actually happened during group activities.

The target language was used almost exclusively by the teacher, with occasional single words being spoken in Japanese. In group activities, however, the observers noted frequent use of Japanese by students in almost every class, particularly when the task was a problem that could be solved more readily in the native language than in the target language.

To some extent there was an information gap in the teacher-student interaction in these 15 classes. The proportion of unpredictable information given by the teacher ranged from 65% in one class to 100% in six classes, for an average of 84.7%. Use of genuine questions requesting information was considerably lower, ranging from below 25% in 5 classes to 100% in one class, with an average of 48.3%.

In the segment below, the teacher begins by giving unpredictable information, then gives predictable information, and then asks a pseudo question. The student responds with predictable information, since he is reading the answer from a matching exercise in the textbook.

T: All right now I'd like to give you the answers. They have matched the first one for you. A. "Hand in your homework for tomorrow;" it's something that a teacher might say. Can you tell me what would a hairdresser say? What would a hairdresser say? What would a hairdresser say?
S: (reading from text) "I think it's too long in front."

Teachers took sustained turns, that is turns with three or more main clauses, to a much greater extent than did students. An average of 57.5% of all teacher turns were sustained. Student turns, on the other hand, tended to be ultra-minimal, that is less than three words. In only three classes did students produce any sustained turns. In the excerpt above, the teacher's turn is sustained and the student's is minimal.

Student utterances also tended to be restricted by the teacher, as in the excerpt above. Choral repetition characterized a high percentage of student utterances in three of the classes, but in ten other classes there was no choral repetition at all.

Figure 3 shows the proportion of teacher responses to message as compared to responses to form. Response to message ranged from 11% in one class to 100% in three classes, with an average of 43.9% of teacher responses to form and 56.1% to message.

(INSERT FIGURE 3 HERE)

The following excerpt illustrates a teacher's focus on form after students had been carrying out a group work task.

T: Your attention please. A few things I heard. Don't forget to put your verb. Could you tell me where Macy's... is. It's quiet. You may not hear an English person saying it, but for good grammar you have to have it. Could you tell me where Macy's is? OK. I heard this. Across from bus station. Something is missing. What is missing? Across from bus station. There is something missing here.

The next excerpt illustrates focus on meaning. The teacher opened this class by asking each student to first answer the question "What do you think of fall?" and then to ask another student the same question.

S: I like fall because I feel calm.
T: That's an interesting answer. Why?
S: I feel calm.
T: Why do you feel calm in the fall?
S: I don't...
T: OK. Think about it and talk to me after class. That was a good answer.

In this excerpt, the student gives unpredictable information, but the form of the student's statement "I like fall because..." has been restricted by the teacher's initial direction to the entire class. The teacher responds to the message and makes a comment, "That's an interesting answer." She then asks for elaboration. When the student is unable to elaborate, the teacher repeats and expands her request for elaboration and paraphrases the comment, "That was a good answer." Comment and elaboration request are two ways in which a teacher may incorporate student utterances. Other ways coded on Part B of COLT include correction, repetition, paraphrase, expansion, and clarification request. Several of these are illustrated in the following excerpt.

T: (reading from handout) In 1620 some people came to America called the ... ?
S: Pilgrims.
T: That's right. The Pilgrims, right. [message, repetition, comment] We always use a big P, OK. [form] (continues to read) They wanted to start a new life here but they didn't have very many...? [pseudo request]
S: Farming skills. [predictable, restricted, message]
T: Very good. Farming skills. [message, repetition, comment]

DISCUSSION

The data presented above illustrate that teachers made a variety of adaptations to teaching in Japan. As a result, their classrooms, on the day of the observation, were not very communicative. Almost every class was teacher-centered, with teachers talking at length while students responded minimally if at all. Although most of the classes did provide time for pair or small group activities, the students did not always use that time to practice English communicatively. In group work, students tended to use Japanese, often at the beginning of an activity to decide what they were expected to do, and whenever the teacher was not in hearing distance. Also students tended to get off task, especially if the teacher spent more than one minute per group before moving on to the next group, or if the teacher allotted more time for the group activity than was needed to complete it.

Even in group work, there was little opportunity for the negotiation of input through interaction believed to contribute to second language acquisition (see, for example, Doughty & Pica, 1986). Instead, students were frequently asked to complete dialogues or ask each other questions from their textbooks. In such activities, the form of student responses was often highly restricted. Some teachers used choral repetition of patterns to provide speaking practice in class.

The textbooks selected by these teachers reflect their belief in a communicative approach. All of the books were organized around topics or language functions rather than form. The books were also selected because they are appropriate for low-proficiency students, have many structured activities, and include supporting materials such as audio tapes. Although these books do provide the simplified input that may help learners comprehend, they do not usually provide samples of authentic language.

Most of the classes emphasized meaning over form. Little class time was spent in explicit teaching of pronunciation, grammar, or vocabulary. At the same time, several teachers did focus on form in their reactions to student utterances. Current research (see, for example, Lightbown & Spada, 1993) supports the view that some focus on form and corrective feedback within a meaning-based lesson enhances second language acquisition more than programs which are exclusively form-based or meaning-based.

All of the classrooms demonstrated adaptations to the Japanese environment. Many of these adaptations suggest that the teachers observed have changed their expectations for their students. In teacher-student interaction, they accept minimal responses from students, with few requests for clarification or elaboration. They allow students to use Japanese in group activities and tolerate off-task behavior. One reason why there were few student-generated materials in the classes observed is that teachers have learned from experience that many students will not complete homework assignments. One teacher who had asked the students to bring an advertisement came prepared with sample advertisements for the 90% who "forgot" to bring one.

Several teachers have devised various means to motivate their students extrinsically. Six use a point system for participation. Others have assigned seating and make notes on seating charts whenever a student participates. For grading, most of these teachers reported that attendance and participation were more important than improvement or performance. Several teachers reported that subjective assessment was the single most important factor in determining students' final grades. They also give fairly high grades because in the Japanese university system, any grade below C is failing.

There was no clear relationship between length of time teaching in Japan or prior teaching experience and the global COLT score. The teachers with the lowest and highest global scores were each in their first year of overseas teaching, while those who had taught five or more years received scores all along the communicative continuum.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The interviews provided valuable information regarding teachers' perceptions of cultural and educational factors, as well as common teaching adaptations. Because interviews were open-ended rather than specific, however, lack of a response for a particular item does not imply a negative response. For example, only four teachers volunteered the information that they use fewer authentic materials in Japan, but the actual number of teachers who do this may be greater. A more specific follow-up interview would have provided more information.

While the COLT provides an excellent record of activities and episodes, it is difficult to document how successfully activities are in fact executed. In one case, a class received a global score of 17 on Part A of the COLT, even though more than half of the students were off-task more than fifty percent of the time. In fact, Part A of the COLT scheme did not capture much student behavior occurring in small group or pair work, nor did it account for the teachers' actions during these times. Recording for Part B was also difficult in the large classes predominant in Japanese universities; consequently, the researchers were not able to code much of the verbal interaction between students. Field notes were used to supplement the coding scheme and the audio recordings.

It should be noted that this study in no way attempts to evaluate the effectiveness or communicative orientation of the individual teachers who participated. In order to assess any one teacher or course it would be necessary to have several observations over an extended period of time, in contrast to the single observations undertaken in the current study. Additional information would also be necessary, since the COLT scheme is not designed to assess non-verbal behavior, classroom atmosphere, or even the overall quality of activities or lessons. As Spada and Frohlich state, "It is important to emphasize that whatever (global) score is obtained, it represents only a description of the classroom instruction. It does not mean that a higher communicative score represents a better learning environment" (1995, p. 125). Nevertheless, because several teachers were observed at different locations in various phases of lessons, the researchers believe that these observations reflect the communicative orientation of university English classes in Japan.

SUGGESTIONS

The low global COLT scores many of the observed classrooms received was often due to the large amount of time spent on procedure. Furthermore, the classes that seemed most successful to the observers

were those that had a quick pace and many different activities. In order to raise the communicative level and heighten student interest, teachers could take steps to reduce the time spent in explaining activities to students. Japanese students have very little experience with pair and group language learning activities and find them confusing at first. They do need very clear explanations of what is expected. But the ratio of explanation time to the time actually spent doing the activity is important to consider. Teachers could do more modeling of the activities rather than repeating verbal instructions several times, select activities that are less complex, and repeat the same types of activities throughout the semester. For example, once students understand how to do information gap pair work (an unfamiliar concept for Japanese students), they can get right into the activity with minimal preparation.

The observers also noted a lot of L1 use by students. Because of their low English proficiency level, students often discussed activities in Japanese even while doing them in English. They also tended to slip frequently into off-task L1 use in some classes. This is a difficult problem for foreign language teachers in Japan, as most will attest. In fact, one of the most important challenges teachers face is to convince students that English can be used for communication and not just to answer test questions. Teachers may need to implement specific strategies for reducing use of first language in their classrooms. For example, one teacher in the study includes use of English both inside and outside of class as a category on a student self-evaluation scheme. Other methods used by some teachers to control L1 use include tokens and penalty points. The observers noticed that during group and pair work use of Japanese was significantly reduced by the proximity of the teacher. Moving more quickly between groups is a simple way that teachers can encourage the use of English in class.

Teachers could also introduce such authentic texts as restaurant menus, bus schedules, and movie listings to use as the basis for information gap activities. Ideally, students could generate more materials. However, as several teachers mentioned, students will rarely do homework and classroom time is often too limited to be used for materials preparation.

As noted in other sections of this paper, the authors recognize the many constraints placed upon communicatively trained teachers in Japanese classrooms. Some of these cannot be changed by individual foreign teachers and it would be presumptuous to think otherwise. Some changes are happening slowly. For example, at one university classes meet with the same teacher five times a week and at another an attempt is being made by the administration to reduce class size and to schedule two meetings per week with the same English teacher. Meanwhile, it is important for teachers to

understand which aspects of English teaching in Japan they can change and which they must accept for now. Working within the constraints of the culture and the educational system is a challenge for western trained teachers and teacher-trainers that should be met with both understanding and creativity.

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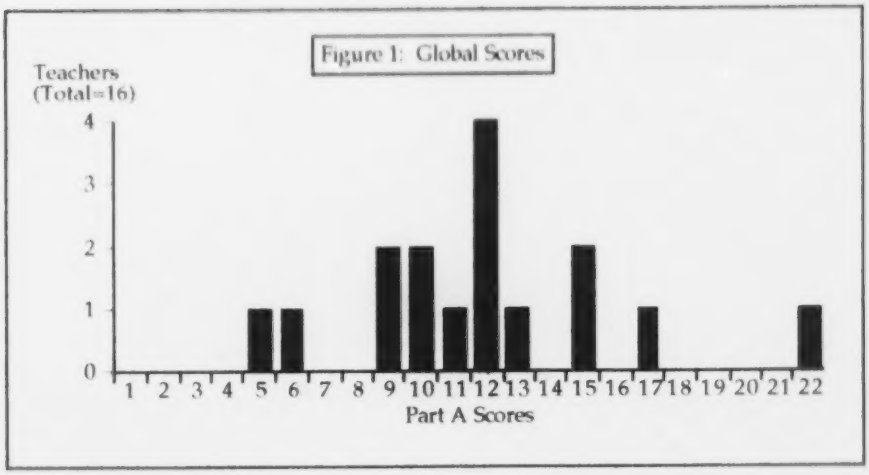

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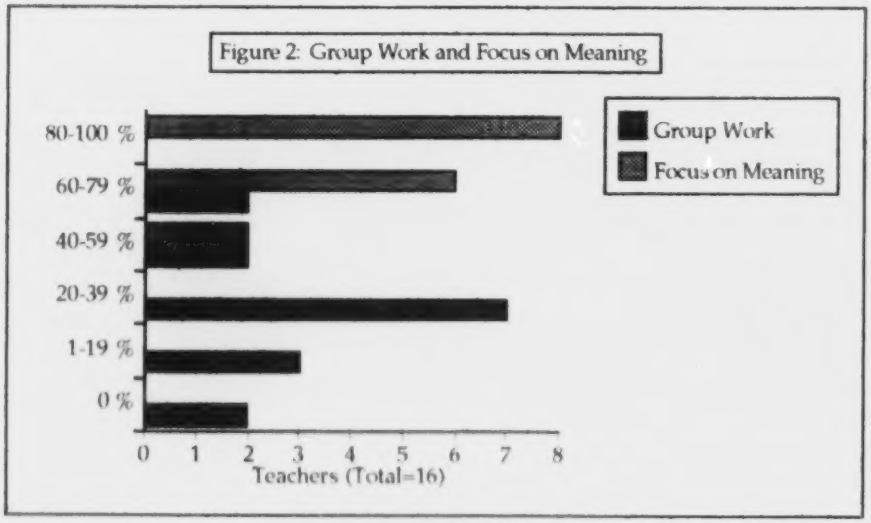
Figure 2: Group Work and Focus on Meaning
80-100 %
60-79 %
40-59 %
20-39 %
1-19 %
0 %
Group Work
Focus on Meaning
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
Teachers (Total=16)

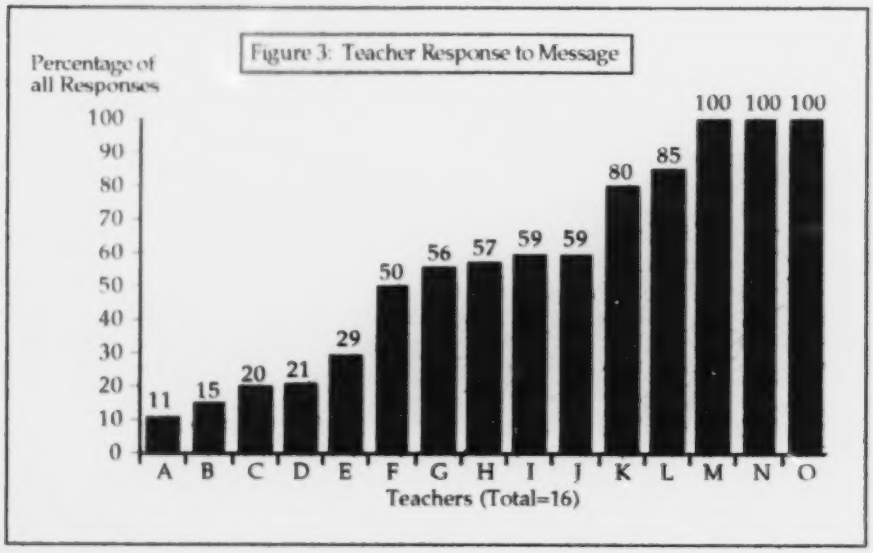

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Table 1: Features of education in Japan and cultural traits seen by teachers to affect student behavior in class.

Language education in Japan:	No. of Teachers	Cultural traits of students:	No. of Teachers
Role of Univ in Jpn: Social not Academic	11	Reticence/shyness	9
Teaching practices: Teacher-centered, Grammar Translation	10	Social pressures: Group orientation, Fear of censure	11
Passive learning	9	Unused to foreigners	5
Larger class size	6		
Product/tests emphasized over process	10		
Lack of oral communication practice	7		

Table 2: Teacher adaptations: materials and classroom management

Materials:	No. of Teachers	Classroom Management:	No. of Teachers
Required texts	15	Assigned seating	10
Fewer authentic materials	4	Permanent groups	4
More basic/ structured materials	9	More time spent on procedure	5
Materials of interest to Japanese students	7	Some use of L1 by teacher	7
More supplementary materials	6	Students allowed limited use of L1	6
		Students allowed extensive use of L1	2

Table 3: Teacher adaptations: methods/techniques/activities/ evaluation and grading

Methods Techniques Activities	No. of Teachers	Evaluation and Grading:	No. of Teachers
Activities more basic/structured	9	Minimal or no homework	8
More info-gap activities	5	Written tests	5
More pair work/ group work	7	Listening quizzes	8
Incentives (e.g., points) to encourage speaking	6	Oral testing	12
		Attendance is important	8
		Participation most important criterion	10
		Grading is subjective	10